DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 042 591 RE 003 136

TITLE	Survey of Title I Reading Programs Conducted in the Fiscal Year of 1966. Preliminary Report.
INSTITUTION	Division of Compensatory Education, BESE.
SPONS AGENCY	Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Nov 67
NOTE	52p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$2.70
DESCRIPTORS	Compensatory Education, Developmental Programs, *Educationally Disadvantaged, Effective Teaching, Enrichment Programs, *Federal Aid, Inservice Education, Instructional Innovation, *National Surveys, *Program Evaluation, *Reading Programs, Remedial Reading Programs, School Surveys
IDENTIFIERS	Elementary Secondary Education Act Title I

ABSTRACT

A nationwide survey of 1,000 school reading projects for the disadvantaged during 1966-67 conducted by Western Reserve University is discussed. Among its purposes were (1) to learn by categories what Title I had funded under the general heading of reading, (2) to discover how these programs had been implemented, (3) to find out what kinds of personnel, materials, and equipment were being used, (4) to analyze different kinds of programs in light of research and professional opinion, and (5) to assess the project designs most likely to predict success. The study also attempted to determine what auxiliary services should be included to produce effective programs and to pinpoint projects which show special promise so that their progress can be followed by the United States Office of Education. The following steps in the survey's completion are described: establishment of criteria for effective reading programs for needy children, selection of a representative sampling of reading projects throughout the United States, interviewing of local project directors by telephone, compilation and summarization of telephone data, visitation of selected projects in several geographical areas, analysis and reporting of visitation data, determination of promising practices, and formulation of recommendations. This publication represents only a portion of the study's full report. (Author/RW)

Title I
BESE
RE

A Survey of Title I Reading Projects

ED042591

RE003 136

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

ED042591

SURVEY OF TITLE I READING PROGRAMS

CONDUCTED IN THE FISCAL YEAR OF 1966

Preliminary Report

November 1967

Division of Compensatory Education--John F. Hughes, Director
Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, Office of Education
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

FOREWORD

This publication reports the results of a survey of 1,000 reading projects funded by Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Because the full report is lengthy, we are reproducing here only the study description and the final two chapters which report promising practices and recommendations.

The study was made by the Reading Studies Center of Western Reserve University under an Office of Education grant. Mary C. Austin, Professor in the Western Reserve Education Department, served as Director of Research.

John F. Hughes, Director
Division of Compensatory Education
Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education

POOR ORIGINAL COPY - BEST AVAILABLE AT TIME FILMED

CHAPTER I

POOR ORIGINAL COPY - BEST AVAILABLE AT TIME FILMED

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The relationship between educational deprivation and poor reading ability is recognized as one of the causes of the "poverty cycle." Indigent families find it difficult to provide schooling for their children, and even when their youngsters are in school they frequently experience difficulty in learning to read. Later on, academic failure which results in school dropouts, often stems from inability to master basic skills. The enormity of the problems created by poverty can be seen when we realize that by 1970, according to our best estimates, one of every two pupils in large city school systems will be disadvantaged.

Who are these children and how can they be identified? From the vast literature accumulating on the disadvantaged, we can sketch a thumbnail profile of the deprived child. He is poor; his family relationships, most probably, are unstable; desertion, illegitimacy, relatives, and lodgers comprise his familiar background. He and his family live in a depressed neighborhood. He brings to school an unfamiliarity with the written word; by the ninth grade, he may be from one to six years retarded in reading. Far more important, positive attitudes toward education, such as the desire to achieve and learn, are crudely formed or entirely lacking. We could call him an underachiever, and be accurate, but this term cannot capture the full import of what deprivation really means. The profile, of course, does not account for those people

who come from rural and urban slums and succeed. These are the exceptions. The generalization is evident in grim dropout statistics, increased delinquency rates, and mounting welfare costs. City and farm, black and white, the deprived have become a national concern. A war on poverty must be waged and won. Improved reading ability among the disadvantaged must become a reality.

Ernest O. Melby of Michigan State University once pointed out that practically all programs for the educationally disadvantaged are conceived as remedial efforts. The assumption is that if past deprivation can be made up the present school curriculum will be satisfactory. He, and others, believe that our educational system must undergo a revolution as fundamental as the social changes of the space age. Repeated findings show that for a third of the children in our schools available offerings are so ill-adapted to the maturation and previous experiences of children that they not only fail academically but develop dark self-images, often becoming so alienated that they are unemployable or delinquent.

Those who disagree with Melby's point of view argue that schools can do little about the conditions underlying poverty. They think that communities must be changed before schools can effect changes in their students. Otherwise, any reforms initiated by educational institutions will flounder in the depths of deprivation and ignorance. Melby's opponents, however, have disregarded what schools have accomplished for millions of immigrants in the ghettos of a half century ago--the disadvantaged of an earlier generation. They have also disregarded recent evidence compiled by Peace Corps groups in rural villages around the world and by returning members who are working in the nation's slums. Expanded educational horizons can, and will continue to, raise literacy levels and standards of living. Curriculum experiences must be utilized to counteract the invidious influences to which deprived children have been exposed in a neglected milieu.

Fortunately, the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 made it possible for the federal government to allocate millions of dollars for special programs devoted to the educationally disadvantaged. During the past two years, hundreds of ESEA Title I projects have focused upon increasing the reading skills of the deprived, such services being limited only by the depth of local need and the height of educators' imagination. The projects have ranged from in-service activities for teachers and administrators to hiring additional personnel; from giving perceptual training to selected first graders to providing medical and social work services for seriously disabled readers. Chicago and Cleveland extended their school day to permit reading improvement classes, while many systems purchased mobile units which house traveling exhibits to enrich children's experiences or semi-permanent structures which house reading centers for diagnostic and remedial work.

Western Reserve University's Study

To become acquainted with the virtually unlimited program possibilities, Western Reserve University requested a grant from the United States Office of Education to conduct a nationwide survey of local school reading projects for the disadvantaged during 1966-67. Purposes of the survey, among others, were to learn by categories what Title I had funded under the general heading of reading; to discover how these programs had been implemented; to find out what kinds of personnel, materials, and equipment were being used; to analyze different kinds of programs in light of research and professional opinion; and to assess with expert consultation project designs most likely to predict success. Additionally, the study attempted to determine what auxiliary services should be included to produce effective programs and to pinpoint projects which showed special promise so their progress could be followed by USOE.

Fortunately, the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 made it possible for the federal government to allocate millions of dollars for special programs devoted to the educationally disadvantaged. During the past two years, hundreds of ESEA Title I projects have focused upon increasing the reading skills of the deprived, such services being limited only by the depth of local need and the height of educators' imagination. The projects have ranged from in-service activities for teachers and administrators to hiring additional personnel; from giving perceptual training to selected first graders to providing medical and social work services for seriously disabled readers. Chicago and Cleveland extended their school day to permit reading improvement classes, while many systems purchased mobile units which house traveling exhibits to enrich children's experiences or semi-permanent structures which house reading centers for diagnostic and remedial work.

Western Reserve University's Study

To become acquainted with the virtually unlimited program possiblilities, Western Reserve University requested a grant from the United States Office of Education to conduct a nationwide survey of local school reading projects for the disadvantaged during 1966-67. Purposes of the survey, among others, were to learn by categories what Title I had funded under the general heading of reading; to discover how these programs had been implemented; to find out what kinds of personnel, materials, and equipment were being used; to analyze different kinds of programs in light of research and professional opinion; and to assess with expert consultation project designs most likely to predict success. Additionally, the study attempted to determine what auxiliary services should be included to produce effective programs and to pinpoint projects which showed special promise so their progress could be followed by USOE.

The study was accomplished in the following steps: establishing criteria for effective reading programs for needy children; selecting a representative sampling of reading projects throughout the United States; interviewing local project directors by telephone; compiling and summarizing the telephone data; visiting selected projects in several geographical areas; analyzing and reporting the visitation data; determining promising practices; and formulating recommendations. Each step will be discussed briefly in the sections which follow.

Establishing Criteria

Criteria for studying various kinds of reading programs were necessary as a first step in developing a checklist for telephone interviewers to use in gathering information from local Title I directors. Project proposal files at the U. S. Office of Education and at state departments of education in Columbus, Ohio, and Charleston, West Virginia, were reviewed to obtain broad project categories. In the latter two locations where detailed documents were kept, actual proposals were examined to ascertain project designs, statements of objectives, and plans for achieving desired goals.

Based upon these materials, six project types appeared most frequently: developmental programs in which children in regular classrooms in target areas received intensified help in reading; remedial reading projects which included reading clinics, remedial classes, and/or corrective classes for pupils whose retardation varied from severe to mild; enrichment programs which provided cultural experiences to supplement reading projects; special programs planned to overcome specific learning handicaps related to reading; in-service education for teachers and administrators; and combination projects which usually involved two or more separate projects associated with reading but often administered independently.

The study of project titles was an interesting, if not fruitful, undertaking. Some titles were unnecessarily complex, while many appeared deceptively simple, with the remainder falling between the two extremes. Such titles as Remedial Reading, Reading Improvement, Reading Achievement, and Basic Skills were employed frequently. Anti-Dropout Program, Project New Hope, Plus Program, Enhancing the Counseling and Self Concept, Learning Reinforcement, Planned Educational Change, Boost for Kindergarten and First Grade, and Staff Improvement were more unique. Obviously, these brief descriptive titles cannot be relied upon to give valuable information about various projects, but they provide some indication of the direction taken by the projects themselves.

From initial overviews of actual proposals, a trial telephone questionnaire was constructed containing such areas as major project objectives, step-by-step program operation, special problems encountered during the projects, information about materials, equipment, personnel, and evaluation procedures, and a section for anticipated changes.

The checklist in its preliminary form was then submitted to three authorities on reading and evaluation who served as consultants throughout the study. Their reactions and suggestions were gained during a five-way telephone conference line arrangement. At that time, a decision was reached to request basic information on a written form from each project director.

The telephone checklist was refined and tried during a pilot study in twelve Ohio school systems by interviewers.

The Western Reserve University staff was indeed fortunate to have as consultants Dr. Gertrude Whipple, Language Arts Department, Detroit Public Schools, Dr. Leo Fay, Professor of Education, Indiana University, and Dr. John Ames, Professor of Education,

Queens College. Through their invaluable help, criteria were clarified for distinguishing the six types of programs, as well as the actual telephone interviews. They also contributed their professional expertise during discussions with the staff about promising practices and recommendations.

The Study Sample

The total population was defined as public school systems located in all communities with an enrollment equal to, or in excess of, three hundred pupils in all fifty states and the District of Columbia. Systems meeting these requirements were 12,229 in number.

A stratified and proportional random sample of school systems was then made by Abraham Frankel of the U. S. Office of Education (CES-DSA) for use as the original study population in the survey of Title I Reading Programs. One thousand two hundred and forty-four systems were selected by computer according to the following strata:

Enrollment Size	Number of Districts in Universe (N)	Sample (n)
12,000 and over	453	453
3,000 - 11,999	2,386	478
300 - 2,999	9,390	313
	12,229	1,244

Because it was anticipated that large urban areas would have proportionately more economically deprived pupils than smaller ones, and hence more Title I projects, selection was weighted in the direction of the former.

Letters were sent to State Title I Directors, Local Superintendents of Schools, and Local Title I Directors of the sample population, requesting their cooperation and participation in the Survey, and their completion in writing of a three-page questionnaire

(Form W). Three hundred nineteen (319) systems did not respond even though a follow-up letter was sent. Two hundred forty-seven (247) systems replied they had no reading project funded by Title I.

The participating population then was composed of six hundred thirty-two (632) school systems in the computer sampling which completed both questionnaires--the telephone interview (Form T) and the written questionnaire (Form W). When each system was assigned to one of three categories on the basis of school enrollment figures: large (12,000 and over), medium (between 3,000 - 11,999) and small (between 300 - 2,999), the classification resulted in a distribution of two hundred seventy-eight (278) large systems, two hundred thirty-nine (239) medium systems, and one hundred fifteen (115) small systems. Table I shows the number and percentage of systems in the computer selected population which took part in the study.

Table I

The Number and Percentage of Systems Participating According to Student Enrollment

Enrollment	Original Computer Population	Participating Population	Percentages of Systems Participating
Large	453	278	61.4
Medium	478	239	50.0
Small	313	115	36.7
Total	1,244	632	52.4

Telephone Interviews (Form T)

Structured telephone interviews, using the Title I Reading Survey Telephone Questionnaire were conducted with Title I project directors or their representatives in the District of Columbia and all of the contiguous forty-eight states

except Connecticut. Connecticut's state director asked that his schools not be included in the survey. For reasons of economy the states of Hawaii and Alaska were excluded from the survey. In all, Title I personnel in six hundred seventy-eight (678) school systems were interviewed by telephone by a staff including Dr. Mary C. Austin, Carl B. Smith, two reading specialists, a Western Reserve University graduate student in education, and a professional telephone interviewer. Each staff member conducted thirty to forty-five minute interviews (longer in larger systems where several programs were in operation) to elicit essential data for the purposes of the present study.

Before these interviews took place, however, the telephone interviewers completed a training program from October 3, 1966, to October 11, 1966. An overview of the entire project was presented, concepts to be examined were discussed, and an indepth study of the questionnaire was followed by practice in administering the telephone questionnaire in the training program. From October 12, 1966, to October 14, 1966, the telephone interviewers participated in the previously mentioned pilot study. Telephone calls were made to twelve (12) schools in Northeastern Ohio. Further discussion and practice followed before the actual telephone interviews began on October 15, 1966. Calls were completed at Western Reserve University's Reading Center on November 17, 1966. One of the staff spent two weeks (December 5, 1966, to December 18, 1966) in Washington at the U. S. Office of Education headquarters to complete the remaining calls.

Analysis of Telephone Data

Anyone who has conducted a study of programs which vary markedly in size and scope, as well as content, can anticipate readily some of the difficulties attached to an analysis of the enormous amount of data obtained. The study staff was fortunate in having Dr. Joseph Sheehan of Western Reserve University as a statistical consultant throughout the project. He recommended

from the beginning the use of computer processing for a number of reasons: more refined data, more efficient research design, more accessible data, and maintenance of identity of individual projects.

Dr. Sheehan further advised that each school system whose project was included be assigned an identification number, each digit in the number representing key categories to be examined. The identification numbers follow:

Seven-digit identification numbers were assigned to each school system. The first three digits indicated the region and a system. The United States was divided into nine regions according to the National Education Association classification.

Region 1 - Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont - was assigned numbers 001 - 100.

Region 2 - Delaware, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania - was assigned numbers 101 - 200.

Region 3 - Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin - was assigned numbers 201 - 350.

Region 4 - Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota - was assigned numbers 351 - 450.

Region 5 - Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, District of Columbia, West Virginia - was assigned numbers 451 - 575.

Region 6 - Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee - was assigned numbers 576 - 650.

Region 7 - Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas - was assigned numbers 651 - 750.

Region 8 - Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming - was assigned numbers 751 - 850.

Region 9 - California, Oregon, Washington - was assigned numbers 851 - 999.

The Numbers within the regions were assigned alphabetically according to the school systems in the states.

The fourth digit classified the school system according to urban and rural areas. The urban areas were further categorized

as to population.

1 - designated large cities with population of 400,001 or more.

2 - designated medium cities with population of 100,001 to 400,000.

3 - designated small cities with population of 15,000 to 100,000.

4 - designated rural areas.

The fifth digit referred to the program type.

1 - designated developmental programs.

2 - designated remedial programs.

3 - designated enrichment programs.

4 - designated special programs.

5 - designated in-service programs.

6 - designated combination programs which included 2 or more of the above programs.

The sixth digit referred to the dollar amount of the Title I grant allocated to reading.

1 - designated $500,001 and above.

2 - designated $100,001 - $500,000.

3 - designated $25,001 - $100,000.

4 - designated $0.00 - $25,000.

The seventh digit referred to the grade levels in the schools involved in the project.

1 - designated programs in all grades K-12.

2 - designated programs in elementary grades K-6.

3 - designated programs in secondary grades 7-12.

Information for the identification data was secured from the T-form (telephone questionnaire) and/or the W-form (written questionnaire) completed by a representative of the school system.

Coding.--Mr. Robert Hazelton, computer programmer at the Western Reserve University Center for Documentation and Communication

Research, agreed that computer processing would be feasible if the questionnaires were coded so that a key punch operator could transcribe the information efficiently. Subsequently, a code was devised for objective answers, for all answers to open-end questions, and for all other descriptive answers. For the latter, the objective was to establish broad categories, as well as to provide meaningful information within the framework of questions posed by the survey. A sampling of completed T-forms from 100 systems was examined, item by item, and from this sample an answer sheet was designed for use by the coders.

Four staff members who had made telephone calls coded every T-form under the supervision of the assistant project director. Green marks and numbers (for expanded information) were made on every item to be punched by a keypunch operator.

Flagging.--An objective of the Title I Reading Survey was also to describe promising practices, unique ideas, and creative projects in addition to significant observations about program operation. A system was therefore devised to flag or star any folder which indicated further examination. The practice, idea, or comment was encircled in black on the page of the T-form on which it appeared and that page was also starred. On a separate list, the identification number, name of school system and topic of interest were noted.

School Visitations

During December and January, the visitation of several regions throughout the country to gain additional information about certain reading projects took place. Those systems included in the visitation schedule were selected according to the following criteria: size of school system, number of pupils receiving help in reading through Title I, amount of Title I money allocated for reading, geographical area represented by the system, type of program offered, and unique features of the

Title I reading program as it operated during the academic year of 1966-67.

Thirty-four (34) school systems were visited, seven by both Carl B. Smith and Mary C. Austin as shown by an asterisk. The others were divided as shown by S (Smith) or A (Austin).

* Buffalo, N. Y.
A Kenmore, N. Y.
A Youngstown, Ohio
* Columbus, Ohio
S Cincinnati, Ohio
A Philadelphia, Pa.
A Camden, N. J.
A Baltimore, Md.
A Mt. Vernon, N. Y.
A Troy, N. Y.
S Portsmouth, Va.
S Kanawha Co. (Charleston) W. Va.
S Cabell Co. (Huntington) W. Va.
S Raleigh, N. C.
S Johnston Co. (Smithfield) N. C.
A Greenville Co. (Greenville) S. C.
S Duval Co. (Jacksonville) Fla.

A Alachua Co. (Gainesville) Fla.
* Pinellas Co. (Clearwater) Fla.
* Palm Beach Co. (West P. B.) Fla.
A DeKalb Co. (Clarkston) Ga.
A Dougherty Co. (Albany) Ga.
A Muscogee Co. (Columbus) Ga.
A San Antonio, Texas
A Waco, Texas
A Fort Worth, Texas
* Kansas City, Mo.
S Bay City, Mich.
* Chicago, Ill.
S Milwaukee, Wisconsin
* San Bernardino, Calif.
A Riverside, Calif.
S Oakland, Calif.
S San Francisco, Calif.

The general pattern of visitation included a brief orientation and program review by the local Title I director and/or reading coordinator, followed by visits to representative classrooms in several schools to observe the program in action and to talk with children, teachers, and administrators about their reactions to the program. In many systems, luncheon meetings were arranged with all or several target school administrators, as well as school superintendents and other administrative personnel. In large cities and counties, the survey team usually spent two days, while in smaller areas one day proved sufficient.

During and subsequent to the field visits, brief reports were completed by Mr. Smith and Mrs. Austin.

The visitations provided first-hand opportunities to study the kinds of personnel, materials, and equipment that are being used in the reading programs. They also enabled the survey team to discuss anticipated changes which Title I people were contemplating and to learn what measure of success local project directors ascribed to the programs at the middle of the school year.

The visits included schools in which the following activities, and others, were observed:

1. Early admissions program for developing readiness for learning (Baltimore)

2. Perceptual training for first graders in the lowest 40 per cent on readiness tests (Palm Beach County)

3. Developmental reading classes for all children in grades 1-8 with multi-level materials (Greenville, N. C.)

4. Corrective reading in grades 2-12 with a teacher working with 6 children within a glass partitioned confrontation area while an aide worked with 6 children within a Kinetech environment--primary typewriters, listening center, overhead projector, and films--with an exchange of students after 25 minutes (Youngstown, Ohio)

5. Corrective reading at Secondary level by team-teachers and in mobile units (Fort Worth)

6. Reading clinic for diagnosis and instruction on one-to-one basis when children were transported by parents to the clinic for one session per week (Philadelphia)

7. Reading clinic classes at a central location in a county when children were transported daily by school busses--1,000 students each week (Columbus, Georgia)

8. Reduced class size in primary grades (Chicago)

9. Extended day reading activities (Chicago)

10. Language experience, linguistic patterns and enrichment of first grade classes in one building (San Antonio)

11. Seminar on linguistics for 15 administrators and supervisors (San Bernardino)

12. Massive attack on problems of deprived children through in-service education for large group of teachers (170) (San Bernardino)

13. Reading clinic training for one semester (14 teachers) full-time, with one-half day in supervised clinic situation and one-half day in own building teaching special developmental and remedial classes (Albany, Georgia)

14. Use of closed circuit TV for teacher education in a reading clinic (Clarkston, Georgia)

Analyzing and Reporting Visitation Data

To secure comparable information from projects selected for visitation, a seven page form was designed. This form included basic questions to be asked of project directors, of administrators and teachers in whose buildings Title I programs were being conducted, and of children who were participating in Title I projects. Additional pages were available for recording room arrangements, special materials and equipment, and a summary of the strengths and limitations of the project.

Data gathered during field visits were analyzed by type of project to reflect the special features of each program, the unique features being determined by statements of local Title I directors and the Western Reserve University project staff. Practices observed during visitations were then categorized according to positive influences and negative influences on the basis of the W. R. U. project staff's knowledge of effective practices in teaching reading.

Promising Practices and Recommendations

Having summarized data from the on-site observation forms, the staff sought advice from the project consultants, Dr. Gertrude

Whipple, Dr. Leo Fay, and Dr. John Ames in a two-day conference in Cleveland on February 8 and 9, 1967. At that time specific practices noted during field visits by the director and assistant director were discussed. From among these, certain ones were selected as "promising" practices which were judged to be effective in promoting reading skills of disadvantaged youth. Other meritorious procedures known to the consultants and staff were introduced for consideration. Together these form the content of a later section of the report.

The February conference also brought forth some initial recommendations for strengthening the six types of projects with which this study is concerned. Many of the recommendations obviously are based upon practices currently in use in the teaching of reading to pupils enrolled in target area schools. Others sprang from discussions with project director, administrators, supervisors, and teachers who shared their hopes and ideas for changing their programs as circumstances permitted. Still another source of recommendations was found in research reports and professional literature reviewed during the conduct of the present study.

CHAPTER II

PROMISING PRACTICES

Discussions with the hundreds of Title I Directors in this study revealed many promising practices or innovations. The investigators and consultants for the project reviewed the many practices and approaches reported in the interviews and selected several that either seemed particularly innovative or seemed especially promising for disadvantaged learners.

Of the many ways to organize these practices for review it was determined to list practices that include aspects of organization, instruction and testing. Some of the practices cut across boundaries, but these categories enable different people to have a ready reference to their own speciality.

All of these practices must naturally be evaluated in terms of how they work in a given school system. They may not be universally applicable.

Organizational Practices

Administrators reported a number of interesting practices that may help others who want to know how to structure programs or provide for the future planning of reading programs. Some that were quite general in application include the following:

Cooperative projects

...Three rural counties without the finances to organize and supervise a program individually joined in hiring a director of remedial reading. This man then outlined a program for the schools of the three counties, hired remedial reading teachers, and supervised their work.

After school program

...After school programs operate from several central locations so they can serve a broader area and include more youngsters. Eight teachers in each center give diagnostic tests and then use reading labs, pilot libraries, and programed material to carry on the corrective work.

Prevention

...In order to emphasize the need for prevention, a school system placed a major portion of its funds in the pre-school and kindergarten levels. Each kindergarten teacher has an assistant who gives attention to verbalization and visual motor activities. Where need is indicated, the children receive intensive physical, mental and psychological tests. Another school system began its remedial and corrective program at grade two to prevent serious disorders later. A remedial teacher and an aide met with ten children at a time, fifty children a day.

Ungraded

...The ungraded class is used to take care of all students in grades one through nine who score in the bottom two quartiles on standardized reading tests. These classes concentrate on the three "R's" until the child masters these skills to a point where he can return to the

regular classroom. Age groups are arranged on a primary, intermediate and junior high arrangement.

A slightly different approach to the ungraded concept is to keep children in similar age groups but still not promote them from one grade to the next. Each child moves along a sequence of skills and his progress is determined by the reading skills he has mastered and the books he has read.

Public relations

...The appointment of a community-school teacher has eased many home-school and community-school problems for one school system. This teacher acts as a liaison between the school and the parent, showing the parent how he can help his child study and read more effectively and how certain discipline problems can be eased with the help of the home.

One system produced a color movie of the new Title I remedial reading program in order to inform parents and the general public. It was so impressive that the State of California bought copies of it for general public relations use in explaining the value of federal monies for the schools.

Enrichment

...To teach children about the theater arts and to encourage community participation, one system rejuvenated an elementary school auditorium. It was turned into a first class professional theater with a professional director and local theater groups participating in giving plays for the children and in teaching them their part as theater goers. It has become an excellent

public relations move in addition to its cultural enrichment feature.

Division of urban education

...The establishment of a division of urban education gave one city the push to create a variety of programs for the disadvantaged with authority at the assistant superintendent level. Finance, planning and curriculum development were part of the responsibility of this division.

Teacher effectiveness

One of the growing concerns of Title I administrators is finding ways of making teaching more effective. Many of them concluded that the schools have to provide certain supports in the organization of the school that will assist the teacher and encourage him to become more knowledgeable and efficient. The following are some of the interesting practices that were noted in this area:

...Corrective reading teachers, who work with small groups of children, are provided two half-days a week for in-service meetings, conferences with parents, and consultation with regular classroom teachers. This schedule is a recognition of the need for guaranteed planning and conference time in the remedial teacher's schedule.

...Itinerant diagnosticians examine children that building principals recommend and map out a program of correction. The corrective program is carried out by the classroom teacher or by the diagnostician, depending on the severity of the problem. At any rate, conferences with classroom teachers and parents are mandatory.

...Teachers were often reluctant to stick to new materials when they were provided by a new reading program. To overcome this

resistance, some school systems developed carefully programed workshops to explain and demonstrate the new materials. These workshops were periodic so that no more of the material than necessary was revealed at a given session. This procedure fostered a sense of security and therefore greater acceptance of new materials and procedures than was observed by those who provided little or no demonstration.

...One system bought a large van and equipped it especially for the demonstration of new techniques and materials. A resource team, consisting of a co-ordinator and two consultants travels with the van. They give in-service work in one school to one grade level at a time. The teachers from that grade level are released for participation while substitutes take their classes. The consultants then discuss and demonstrate those materials and techniques that are applicable to that grade level. Teachers can actually work with the materials during the afternoon of the day that they spend in this travelling workshop.

...The establishment of a special audio-visual department in one school system enabled the reading teachers to have books made for experience stories, filmstrips to aid in reviewing field trips, and transparencies for all kinds of classroom activities.

...Some school systems found it desirable to set up a teacher education center. Included would be attractive meeting rooms, a professional library, and materials for in-service training. One system painted and carpeted an old warehouse to make a very attractive center. Reading teachers were released one day a month to attend workshops in the center and one day a month to make use of the professional library and curriculum library at the center.

Clinics and vans

...Various kinds of centers for the correction of reading difficulties were established. One system did not refer to their center as a reading clinic but called it a learning improvement center. In this center children were given individual psychological tests. Upon recommendation, home and school visitations were made by social workers, reading tests were administered, physical and neurological examinations were made. Children reported one and one-half hours a day to the learning improvement center until testing and initial therapy were completed, coming from their schools by a small bus or station wagon.

...One school system calls their remedial reading center a diagnostic center. This was a central clinic to which children were bussed on a regular basis. Each child was given a full range of physical and psychological services for both diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. Its main function, however, was to be a diagnostic service and return the child to his home school for therapy and corrective work. Only very severe cases returned to the diagnostic center regularly for treatment.

...For various practical and psychological reasons one school system set up two separate reading clinics. These were new facilities that housed space for doctors, nurses, psychologists, and reading clinicians. One clinic was devoted to the elementary grades, one through six; the other to grades seven through twelve. A large library center constitutes the fulcrum around which the other elements of the clinic operate.

...A small community which has few specialized services available for students opened an after-school learning center. This center

provides a kind of study hall with reference materials and tutors available for the children. This center was leased in the commercial district on the main street of the small town.

...In an area where many Spanish speaking children live a school system set up a number of learning centers to help teach reading to Spanish-American children. These centers care for pre-school and kindergarten children in the morning from 8:45 to 11:00 and first and second graders in the afternoon. Pupils are taken by busses to and from their homes. Instruction is conducted by the language experience approach.

These centers are stocked with a large supply of visual aids that make it easier for specially trained teachers to teach English as a second language.

...Some school systems used vans or mobile trailers to serve as mobile clinics. One school system equipped a van to do specilaized kinds of remedial testing and training. This school system had no central transportation and its schools were spread through a wide area that included both urban and rural communities. In this particular case children who had been identified as having visual-motor perception difficulties on several tests were treated in a truck or van that carried special equipment to the schools. The teacher-driver spent one-half day at one school and then drove to a second school for the other half of that day. Thus she is able to carry with her all the specialized equipment in a sixteen-foot truck which is completely air-conditioned and specially lighted. This is particularly useful for a county operation.

Secondary educational practices

...To assist corrective reading at the secondary level one school

system established a corrective reading center with a trained reading teacher in each junior and senior high school. Children were selected on the basis of being two or more years below grade level in reading. These criteria were reinforced by the requirement of normal or better intelligence. The children met in groups of six to eight in a specially designed clinic room and worked each day with the reading teacher for forty-five minutes. Conferences were arranged with parents who were encouraged to participate in helping their children. The parents also participated in the evaluation of this program by filling out survey forms and giving their reactions.

...Team teaching with one member of the team acting as a reading teacher enabled one school system to take care of both developmental and corrective reading at the secondary level. Two English teachers, one reading teacher, and one teacher aide work as a team to solve the reading and English problems of two classes of junior or senior high school students. They spend four periods each day in classroom activity, with the remaining three periods devoted to the preparation of teaching units. At least one period each day is devoted to an actual team conference in which assignments are discussed and reactions of the class members are noted. The reading teacher operates in a room that is separated from the regular classrooms. This room is equipped with sound-proof booths for typing and recording as well as space for small group discussions. Team members determine on what basis the reading teacher takes the children for corrective or developmental activities.

PAGE 24 IS NOT AVAILABLE
FOR FILMING AT THIS TIME

...Realizing the necessity of showing how reading is correlated with subject matter success, the reading and classroom teachers work on a cooperative basis. This cooperation was initiated and encouraged by a strong in-service program that shows the correlation of reading and content as its theme.

...Experience stories were collected by the reading center staff of one school system and put into booklet form. As these booklets are made up the staff runs a readibility check on them for descriptive and experimental purposes. The experience story book is then used as supplementary reading. It is also used to encourage other children to write their own stories.

Interest approach

...In a pilot program one school system attempts to increase the motivation of remedial reading students. The entire approach is designed to create interest in reading. The child is placed in a room which contains many library materials and is encouraged to select a book. He asks for help in reading only when he comes upon something that he cannot solve himself. When the child asks for help, individual attention is given. Later, when reading and interest have been accomplished, small group work is encouraged. No attempt is made at skill development until the child asks for help. Then a program is mapped out.

...The physical education teacher works with the reading and classroom teacher on motor-perceptual development. He selects one to five children for each of his perceptual development sessions. These children have been diagnosed as needing help in that area. He encourages them to be interested in reading as he goes through the visual motor activities outlined in the curriculum guide.

...One school system installed paperback classroom libraries in each classroom that was devoted to an academic area.

...The remedial reading teacher reserves one day a week to go into regular reading classes and develop interest among those who need corrective work with her knowledge of high interest, low vocabulary books and with the use of other materials. This approach also enables the classroom teacher to see techniques and materials that may be of use to her.

...A twelve by forty-five foot aluminum trailer was designed as a traveling art exhibit. This art exhibit travels from school to school and provides cultural enrichment for the children in that school. An exhibit on pottery, its use and its manufacture, attempts to get the children interested in reading about the people of their locale and the way they live.

Individual attention

...Tutor programs offer individual attention to children who need it. In order to give a child a chance to perform for an adult on an individual basis, one school system provided tutors for grades one through nine. The tutors saw each child for twenty minutes, two or three times a week. The child reads for the tutor from the regular classroom material, and the tutor asks questions according to a programed pattern that has been provided by special program writers. This programed tutoring was praised enthusiastically by those involved and by the consultants.

...In one school system the remedial reading teacher and a psychologist design a corrective program for a child who has a reading disability. This child then works with a volunteer tutor who is a student from a local university. The tutor sees the child five hours a week on a one-to-one basis and provides personal encouragement and guidance as indicated by the program written for him.

...One system found that overcoming the reading problems of secondary students was best handled by a combination of a counselor and a reading teacher.

...To give young children a chance to read aloud to an adult some schools are using high school girls from the Future Teachers of America Club as well as junior college girls who come daily to listen to individuals or small groups read while the teacher conducts other instructional activities.

...One school system provided two aides for the remedial reading teacher. The aides have a minimum of two years of college. The remedial reading teacher sets up a program for each child that includes taped lessons which can be played at listening stations in a specially designed room. The aides work with the children on these taped lessons and then help them on reading problems that they have in other subject matter areas. Study techniques include such skills as how to locate information, use the table of contents, find the main idea by using sub-headings, etc.

...To provide more individual work one school divided its elementary school classrooms into three parts. Acoustical tile made the operation of three separate activities possible. The three small rooms within the large room makes it possible for the home room teacher, the reading teacher, and a teacher aide to work with three groups at the same time. These teachers also plan on a team basis in order to get as much individual response from the children as possible.

...In one system where each teacher has an assistant for thirty-six children, the assistant takes a group of six children at a time and listens to them read or helps them to read and discuss the material that the classroom teacher introduced.

PAGE 28 IS NOT AVAILABLE
FOR FILMING AT THIS TIME

1) Testing by a psychologist.
2) Testing by a reading specialist.
3) Periodic instructional therapy by a reading clinician. The clinician's maximum load is seven pupils in the morning and seven pupils in the afternoon.
4) Therapy is conducted during four days of the work week with the fifth day reserved for conferences with parents and teachers of the remedial cases. Some clinics also employed a counselor who operated as a liaison between the school system and the parents of the remedial subjects.
5) In one system, children return at regular intervals to the reading clinic for booster work even though they have been dismissed from daily therapy. The booster visits continue until the teacher and the clinician mutually agree that the child has made a satisfactory adjustment and transfer of skills.

Testing and referral of disabled readers

For the sake of showing what some well-organized programs did, there will be listed here the testing practices of several schools.

...One system used this series of tests: California Reading Test, the Gray Oral to determine sight word deficiency, the Gates-McKillop to determine word attack skills, and the Van Waggenen to determine comprehension.

...Another used this series of tests for those children recommended to the reading teacher: Stanford Achievement Test, WISC, Spache Reading Scales, and the Mills Learning Methods Test.

...One system felt that the norms on a standardized reading test would not give a true picture of the reading ability of their pupils. The teachers therefore decided to use the test and set up norms for

the system using intelligence and age as independent variables.

Conclusion

Naturally there were many more fine practices reported and seen as part of this project. The others were more conventional in nature and common to all good reading instruction. Those reported here are those that the staff considered especially effective or promising for the student population of Title I schools.

CHAPTER III

RECOMMENDATIONS

Needs of the Disadvantaged Child

Before pulling together all the ideas that have been reported in the earlier pages of this report, it would be good to see what other researchers have found about the needs, especially the reading skills needs, of the disadvantaged child. Bloom and Gordon have summarized the literature concerning the needs of the disadvantaged.[1] Their conclusions tell the somber tale that the disadvantaged child is generally more restricted in the use of language under school conditions than is the middle-class child, and he is slower in his response to language under school conditions. His whole general achievement record is depressed below that of the average child. Deutsch warns that each year in school the disadvantaged child falls a little further behind his more advantaged contemporary.[2]

The importance of the language factor is pointed out by Meckel who notes that the early environment of the child affects "the early oral experiences...which help to set the basic patterns of oral expression, influence readiness to learn to read and write, and appear to affect later linguistic performance."[3] This condition makes it imperative to influence the linguistic development of the child as early as possible. It would suggest earlier identification of needs and problems and systematic language development in the first days of school as a means of reading readiness.

---

1 Benjamin Bloom, Allison Davis, and Robert Hess. Contemporary Education for Cultural Deprivation. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.)
E.W. Gordon and D.A. Wilkerson. Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged. (College Entrance Examination Board, 1966).

2 Martin Deutsch. "Early Social Environment: Its Influence on School Adaptation" in The School Dropout. Edited by Daniel Schreiber, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1964).

3 Henry Meckel. "Research on Teaching Composition and Literature" in Handbook of Research on Teaching. Edited for the American Educational Research Association, by N.L. Gage, (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963)

Since vocabulary plays an important role in speaking, reading, and writing, a number of studies have focused upon the vocabulary of the disadvantaged child. Thomas learned that his subjects failed to use 20 to 50 per cent of the words contained in five of the standard word lists recommended for primary grades.[4] Kravitz' study of the disadvantaged in the Philadelphia area suggests that the average disadvantaged child starts school with an active vocabulary of only 500 words. This compares with an average of 2500 to 8000 words for the middle-class child.[5] In Grotberg's study this observation is made, however, that some disadvantaged children have rather large vocabularies though they are not appropriate or adequate for school.[6]

All in all this leaves the disadvantaged child with a meager set of word symbols to cope with the reading and educational problems in the early years of school, and the situation only gets worse as he moves up the grades toward the secondary school.

Concept development

As a result of environmental conditions and the lack of language reinforcement at home, the disadvantaged child has great difficulty in handling the concepts presented in the books and exercises he reads in school. In Bloom's review of the literature, he says this about the language and learning characteristics of these children:

---

4 Dominic R. Thomas. "Oral Language, Sentence Structure and Vocabulary of Kindergarten Children Living in Low Socioeconomic Urban Areas", Unpublished doctoral thesis, Wayne State University, 1962.

5 Ida Kravitz. "The Disadvantaged Child: Some Implications for Teachers of Reading", Highlights of Pre-Convention Institutes, Institute I, The Culturally Deprived Reader. (Newark, Del. : International Reading Association, 1965).

6 Edith H. Grotberg. "Learning Disabilities and Remediation in Disadvantaged Children", Review of Educational Research, XXXV (December, 1965), 389-400.

"In the deprived home, language usage is more limited. Much communication is through gestures and other non-verbal means. When language is used, it is likely to be terse and not necessarily grammatically correct. In any case, it is likely to be restricted in the number of grammatical forms which are utilized. Thus, the deprived child enters school inadequately prepared for the typical language tasks of the first grade. The greatest handicap seems to be a lack of familiarity with the speech used by teachers and insufficient practice in attending to prolonged speech sequences.

In the long run, the language which the deprived child has learned at home is likely to be inadequate as an aid and tool in conceptualisation.

The cognitive development of disadvantaged children is not as adequate as their middle-class peers. Weaknesses in language, limited range of experiences, and restricted stimulation of an intellectual nature, all produce certain cognitive deficiencies. In particular, culturally deprived children seem to have special difficulty in developing concepts of an abstract nature and in generalizing. These cognitive deficiencies become most evident in the later elementary and junior high school grades when the subject matter typically requires such abilities." [7]

Ausubel noted very specifically that "it is in the area of language development and particularly with respect to the abstract dimension of verbal functioning, that the culturally deprived child manifests the greatest degree of intellectual retardation."[8]

Of particular importance to this present study Grotberg made the observation that very important differences appear in the dexterity with which lower class children used elements within structured language patterns.[9] Concerning the rate with which the

---

7 Bloom, op. cit., p. 71.

8 David P. Ausubel, "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns, "Understanding the Educational Problems of the Disadvantaged Learner, Part II, ed. Staten W: Webster (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1966), p. 252.

9 Grotberg, op. cit., p. 416.

lower class child functions in language Raph found them to operate at a slower rate and at a lower level of articulatory maturation.[10]

Effect on Reading Performance

The effect that these characteristics of the disadvantaged have on their reading performance is to generally depress them and to put them at a level below what one might expect from the ordinary middle-class group. In Gordon's review of the literature he observes that achievement scores among the disadvantaged are significantly lower than those for the national norms and that reading is especially low; that deprived children tend to lack social experiences which our present school curriculum assumes common to all students; that "the language of lower class youth has been described as restricted in form, as serving to communicate signals and directions and as tending to confine thinking to relatively low levels of repetitiveness."[11]

"The deprived child enters school inadequately prepared for the typical language task of the first grade."[12] All of which enables the observer to see that the disadvantaged or lower income child has a special language development problem, both in terms of a general language retardation and perhaps in terms of dialect interference with the child understanding the speech of the school.

---

10 Jane Beasley Raph, "Language Development in Socially Disadvantaged Children," Review of Educational Research, XXXV (December, 1965), p. 396.

11 Gordon, op. cit., p. 113.

12 Bloom, op. cit., p. 71.

Some of the Title I directors and some of our consultants felt that the needs of the disadvantaged are such that it is legitimate to describe them as another instance of exceptionality, i.e. on the whole they cannot profit from traditional classroom instruction. Many Title I directors reported that more than 50 per cent of their students were two or more years below expectancy in reading achievement, and that the traditional approach to reading, i.e. one teacher to twenty-five or thirty students using a single basal text, had failed.

What this trend indicates is that programs must be planned, facilities constructed, and personnel trained to handle the exceptional needs of these children. Such a change in thinking about the disadvantaged or inner-city child would require the following steps:

1. Evaluate the status of the children in the disadvantaged area.
2. Plan a program to meet evident needs. The cooperation of parents, the community, the children, and the teachers must be won.
3. Provide an adequate instructional environment in materials and facilities to carry out the planned program.
4. Find teachers who will commit themselves to teach this kind of child and give them the necessary psychological, sociological, and reading training to do the job. Making the staff feel adequate and providing it with the necessary supportive services was a strong emotional feeling that came from many of the school systems polled for this study.
5. Continuous evaluation is essential to the efficacy and eventual success of any reading program for the disadvantaged.
6. The school system must be willing to provide services other than academic teaching when evaluation shows additional needs. Some school systems have built in medical and nutritional categories into their budgets for these children.

Characteristics of Effective Programs

As a result of the telephone interviews, visits to selected projects, and conferences with experts, certain components of Title I reading projects appeared to be requisite for success. Six of these components are described briefly in the section that follows.

Perhaps the foremost aspect of Title I reading programs is the individual attention made possible by them for deprived children. Smaller classes, diagnostic testing, corrective instruction, and quantities of materials are being used to meet the needs of target area pupils. Teaching methods which fit their various learning styles are being employed also to facilitate growth in reading skills.

Not only have schools become child need-centered in general language development, but successful programs at all levels are exposing pupils to new worlds through cultural enrichment activities and by providing extensive health services. Children impoverished in either area--experientially or physically--cannot be expected to respond productively to the school's primary task of teaching and learning.

Education on-the-job for teachers and administrators who are engaged in programs for the disadvantaged receives continual attention. Workshops, television courses, closed-circuit observations, school visitations, demonstrations of equipment and materials, professional study at universities and during NDEA Institutes have all contributed to better reading instruction. Nor is in-service education being limited solely to techniques for teaching reading. Several systems

offer "sensitizing experiences" via participation in meetings whose topics are related directly to the problems of the disadvantaged. Frequently, speakers from other disciplines are invited to discuss the implications of social change for curriculum development and the educational process.

Programs for children of low income groups have brought an increase in the quality and quantity of personnel to Title I schools. Projects have added special reading teachers, speech therapists, librarian-teachers, school-community liaison persons, and teams composed of psychologists, social workers, nurses, and physicians. In addition to greater numbers of contacts between the professional worker and deprived children, many schools have hired teacher aides whose duties range from those of a clerical nature to actual tutorial work. Each of the foregoing performs a valuable service in upgrading reading achievement levels.

Family involvement is another essential ingredient of effective projects. Unless parents understand the goals and rationale of compensatory activities, a potentially sound program at school can be subverted at home, particularly when youngsters spend two-thirds of their time away from school. Once parental acceptance has been gained, families are usually eager to support and supplement the daily instructional program of their children.

Although evaluation continues to be a difficult aspect of ESEA reading projects, schools are attempting to use both objective and subjective measures of pupil attainment, potential, and attitudes toward learning. Such procedures are included from the beginning and data are collected systematically. Once analyzed, these data form bases

for recommended program changes. It may appear that we often become too engrossed in statistics and that we "overtest" and "underteach", possibly because governmental agencies are seeking hard facts rather than soft data. However, project directors everywhere are increasing their efforts for worthwhile objectives, improved evaluation design, and efficient data collection.

Beyond the five components of effective Title I projects mentioned above-- child need-centered, teacher/staff training, specialized personnel, family involvement, and careful assessment-- a sixth feature is commendable: emphasis upon the prevention of reading difficulties through preschool and primary grade level programs based upon the premise that the teaching of reading must be preceded by the development of oral and auditory language skills which so many disadvantaged children lack.* The child's interest in learning, the problems of the school dropout, and the educational and vocational future of the individual are largely conditioned by what takes place in the critical early school years. In no other situation does the old adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure" appear more appropriate than in the provision of satisfying learning experiences which obviate the occurrence of reading failures.

---

* The early identification of reading disabilities is a prerequisite of any preventive program.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF A READING PROGRAM

The staff and consultants of this Title I survey drew up recommendations to assist in the development of reading programs for disadvantaged children.

The planning of an effective program should include the following steps:

1) Survey of needs of the children, staff, and facilities.

2) Define objectives in terms of needs.

3) Design a program that is guided by needs and objectives. (Innovative programs should be run on a pilot basis before being imposed on a large body of children.)

4) Orient staff, parents, community, to rationale of program.

5) Recruit personnel and facilities. Priority should be given to personnel but adequate facilities and materials must also be provided for a successful program.

6) Train staff (administrators, teachers, aides) to work in the program. Professional training includes the need of adequate supervision for teachers. They need support and direction.

7) Evaluate periodically. Specify evaluation procedures from the outset of the program. Some locally devised evaluation instruments should be used in addition to standardized tests.

Setting up a Planning Committee

In planning a reading program for disadvantaged youngsters these guidelines should be kept in mind:

1) Allow adequate lead time between the planning phase and the implementation phase of the program. A minimum of six months should be allowed for planning an effective program.

2) An advisory committee for a reading program for disadvantaged children should include representatives from the community, the parents, administrators, teachers and specialized consultants. The advisory committee is concerned with long range goals and the establishment of priorities.

3) An instructional planning committee should include teachers, administrators and consultants. The consultants should be subject matter specialists and evaluation specialists. The instructional planning committee is concerned with short term goals, teaching strategies and evaluation, and the writing of guidelines for teachers who will carry out the program in the daily reading class.

Evaluating the Reading Program

Evaluation as the basis for program planning and development, permeates the entire program, and should not be considered an end product. This is often a troublesome area for many reasons--need for proper evaluative tools, the specialized aspect of educational evaluation, the relative newness of the field of educational evaluation, and the lack of definitive evaluation procedures.

The process of assessment is a continuous one. At the outset evidence must be gathered to provide information in order to make judgments and to define specific objectives. This is the first step in the development of a new course of action. As the program is implemented, information is required to determine progress toward goals. At the conclusion of the program, data are assembled to determine strengths and weaknesses, the progess of the students, and the necessary changes which would help in further program development.

Acknowledging that evaluation is a difficult aspect of most programs, these recommendations are offered.

Administrative

1. Those persons involved in the planning of the program should help in its evaluation by considering the attainment of long-range goals.

2. Those persons involved in the instructional and supervisory phase of the program should assist in the evaluation of short-term goals and general implementation.

3. A statistical department or department of educational research should be established in larger or combined school systems.

4. Smaller school systems should use the services of professional evaluators.

5. Persons assigned to evaluate the program should be on the planning committee.

Instruments

6. Standardized test results should be compared to locally-devised norms.

7. Standardized test results may be compared to frequency distributions of scores for previous years.

8. Testing instruments should measure reading skills, academic achievement, potential, attitude, personality, and interests of the students.

9. Locally-developed evaluative instruments should be used which would serve individual school system needs.

10. Parents should rate their children's attitudes, interests, and progress in reading as well as their own attitudes and interests toward the reading program.

11. Professional staff evaluations of student growth should be used.

12. Content teachers' assessment of student progress in subject area should be encouraged.

13. All in-service programs should be evaluated by pre- and post-instruments.

General

14. Pilot programs should be encouraged. A small controlled study provides experimental data on innovative procedures which a massive program cannot.

Specific

15. Tape recordings provide a permanent record of oral reading performance.

16. Motion pictures provide a permanent visual record of actual performance.

17. Examine various levels of ten high gaining students and ten low gaining students to determine the variables which account for the difference.

Instructional Programs

From the beginning of compensatory education efforts, school systems recognized the need to develop instructional programs that departed from traditional ones. Increased reading power for the disadvantaged cannot be accomplished by "more of the same." New apprcaches, changes of emphases, and experimentation with new materials and equipment receive high priority in project proposals. Major consideration should be given also to the improvement of pupil self-image and motivation for learning.

The recommendations proposed below will be for developmental, remedial, and enrichment programs. Bearing in mind that each must fit the special situation, the criterion must be: Does this program satisy the needs of students in this particular school system.

Developmental

1. Directed reading instruction should be part of the curriculum in grades K-12. It should also be integrated with the content areas.

2. Reading must be broadly defined as more than skills to be taught at any one grade level. It must be viewed on a continuum with the ultimate goal being the cultivation of functional skills for adult living and the development of lifetime reading habits and interests. As such, the teaching of reading should not be discontinued at the end of the sixth grade.

3. Increasing attention should be focused on pupil growth in using critical and creative thinking abilities.

4. Readiness for learning must be considered at every level. Just a few of the aspects to be observed are the child's sensory-motor development, physical health, language proficiency, and experimental background. Extended readiness programs for the educationally deprived are considered highly advantageous.

5. Educational techniques must be devised to take into account the status of students in such areas as those given in the preceding recommendation.

PAGE 44 IS NOT AVAILABLE
FOR FILMING AT THIS TIME

child -- tests, techniques, observations.

2. Diagnosis of less serious reading problems should be realistically planned, reserving more comprehensive study for those pupils whose difficulties appear complicated by a number of factors.

3. Child service centers should be established for educationally deprived pupils. Such centers can provide services on a broader scale than typical reading clinics which too are often narrowly conceived for target area needs. Child service centers offer a staff of professionals which includes reading diagnosticians, psychologists, social workers, specialists in hearing and speech, and medical personnel.

4. Once physical deficiencies, nutritional defects, and emotional problems have been corrected or alleviated, remedial reading can be initiated. Reading teachers can organize instruction within a small group of three to six pupils, or on a one-to-one basis if the latter is more advantageous. Regardless of group size, however, individual assistance is of utmost importance.

5. Corrective programs should be aimed toward overcoming known deficits. To submit all pupils who are handicapped in reading to phonics instruction is no more effective than to prescribe sugar-coated pills for all ills.

6. Materials and devices for corrective reading should be selected with care. Many pupils need to have reading divorced from the usual textbook approaches. They benefit from daily change of instructional procedure directed toward expanding vocabulary and concepts, sharpening visual and auditory perception, and developing specific comprehension techniques.

7. The sequencing of skills is especially important for disadvantaged pupils. An old adage becomes good practice when teachers begin with easy materials and then gradually introduce others of increasing difficulty.

8. Effective teachers help students recognize their strengths and weaknesses. They also establish favorable working relationships in which teachers and students work together to overcome reading deficiences, demonstrating that they value pupils as individuals.

Enrichment

Enrichment should be viewed in the broad aspect of preparing the child in concepts and vocabulary for success in school and then for success in life. It should not be limited to the so-called cultural aspects of art, music and city government. Enrichment involves a different use of time. It is not so concerned with moving rapidly and covering more ground, but it is concerned with time to think, reflect and digest experience--not only exposure, but developing exploration, freedom, opportunity to move.

The following recommendations can guide the use of enrichment activities:

1. Treat enrichment as a learning experience in the sense that preparation, observation and follow-up are part of the class procedure.

2. The number of enrichment activities should be limited to provide the opportunity of depth and reflection and avoid the confusion of multiplicity.

3. The content of enrichment activities should provide experiences that will aid in coping with school environment and later those that will provide culture, such as, eating in restaurants, appreciation of art and music.

4. Attractive explanatory leaflets should be provided to the children on enrichment activities that are systematically provided by the central office of the school system. Lesson guides for the teachers could explain significant features of the experience and suggested follow-up activities.

5. Attractive books should be used as a basic source of enrichment because they are the typical source of enrichment for most of us.

In-service Training

The importance of pre-service education and on-the-job training of all personnel engaged in programs for the disadvantaged must not be overlooked. "Disadvantaged" is merely one form of individual differences. Thus educators should have a strong background about the growth and development of children in general, an understanding of the great range of differences, and knowledge of specific instructional techniques to meet the needs of specific students.

Regardless of the objectives of the reading program, the teacher is the crux to its success. What is needed are new ways of enhancing the role of the classroom teacher and building the strength of the career teacher. Too often there are disadvantaged teachers in the classroom - disadvantaged because they have been expected to undertake reading improvement classes with little or no additional training. Unprepared teachers diminish the quality of education.

Universities cannot meet the current demand for trained reading teachers who have worked with the disadvantaged. The professional preparation of those persons teaching in today's classrooms must be recognized and deficiencies corrected. It is in the area of on-the-job training that these recommendations are offered.

1. Reading projects should have provisions for personnel training as an integral part.

2. Some in-service education should be conducted for the total school faculty, including administrators.

3. In-service programs should be continuous, on a year-to-year basis.

4. Teachers and supervisors should take active roles in planning in-service activities.

5. All programs should be evaluated by carefully defined procedures.

6. Participants should be given released time to attend training sessions or be given monetary compensation.

7. The content of the programs should be based upon specific problems cited by teachers and common to many.

8. Teacher committees or teams should make in-depth studies of the education of the disadvantaged and develop curriculum guides and/or structural material to meet the needs of their unique student population.

9. In-service activities should further the understanding and develop positive attitudes toward the disadvantaged for the masses of teachers and administrators.

10. In-service activities should be more narrowly defined for particular groups of teachers to accomplish specific tasks.

11. Principals and administrators should assume an active role in supervising and supporting the day-to-day implementation of the reading program.

12. Professional libraries should be available and accessible to personnel in all school systems.

13. Government support of post-baccalaureate training, such as the NDEA Institutes and the USOE Teacher Fellowship Programs should be continued.

Selection Criteria For Special Services

In selecting disadvantaged children to receive a special service, such as remedial reading, the following recommendations can act as guidelines:

1. Use a selection technique that will show a difference between achievement and potential. Do not use the difference between achievement and grade level. This latter difference is not a valid criterion for participation in a remedial reading program or a special services program.

2. Those who can clearly profit from the type program offered should be chosen before questionable cases are admitted. The remedial reading program should not become a dumping ground for the retarded and the delinquent.

3. Recommendations of teachers and administrators should be used to supplement hard data from tests. The teacher's recommendation form should require a list of symptons and a list of corrective techniques that have already been applied to the child.

4. Identification of disability and selection of special help should take place as early in the child's school life as possible. Early identification is essential to the disadvantaged.

School districts in which 50 per cent of the pupils are illiterate by present academic standards must take giant steps to alleviate such deficits. Tomorrow's curriculum will depend increasingly upon independent learning abilities of students. Reading is the basic tool required for such independence.

Because of the lower levels of achievement and the economic needs of a large segment of the school population, extra services will continue to be in demand for at least another decade. Indeed, a saturation of services in each deprived area appears to be the best antidote. Increased numbers of highly competent teachers and special personnel should help schools examine the learning strengths of disadvantaged youth. Additional library facilities and enrichment activites will contribute to the development of lifelong interests in reading.

In this decade, Title I, ESEA, has made it possible for hundreds of school systems to implement programs to up-grade the reading levels of thousands of disadvantaged pupils. While the Act itself cannot guarantee excellence, it does stimulate the search for quality education for all youth and it does promise improvement. Furthermore, it enables educators to fulfill the goal of better reading instruction for all of the nation's schools.